A Primer on PAC-Bayesian Learning

Benjamin Guedj, John Shawe-Taylor

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What to expect

We will...

- Provide an overview of what PAC-Bayes is
- Illustrate its flexibility and relevance to tackle modern machine learning tasks, and rethink generalization
- Cover main existing results and key ideas, and briefly sketch some proofs

We won't...

- Cover all of Statistical Learning Theory: see the NeurIPS 2018 tutorial "Statistical Learning Theory: A Hitchhiker's guide" (Shawe-Taylor and Rivasplata)
- Provide an encyclopaedic coverage of the PAC-Bayes literature (apologies!)

In a nutshell

PAC-Bayes is a generic framework to efficiently rethink generalization for numerous machine learning algorithms. It leverages the flexibility of Bayesian learning and allows to derive new learning algorithms.

The plan

1. Elements of Statistical Learning

2. The PAC-Bayesian Theory

3. State-of-the-art PAC-Bayes results: a case study
   - Localized PAC-Bayes: data- or distribution-dependent priors
   - Stability and PAC-Bayes
   - PAC-Bayes analysis of deep neural networks

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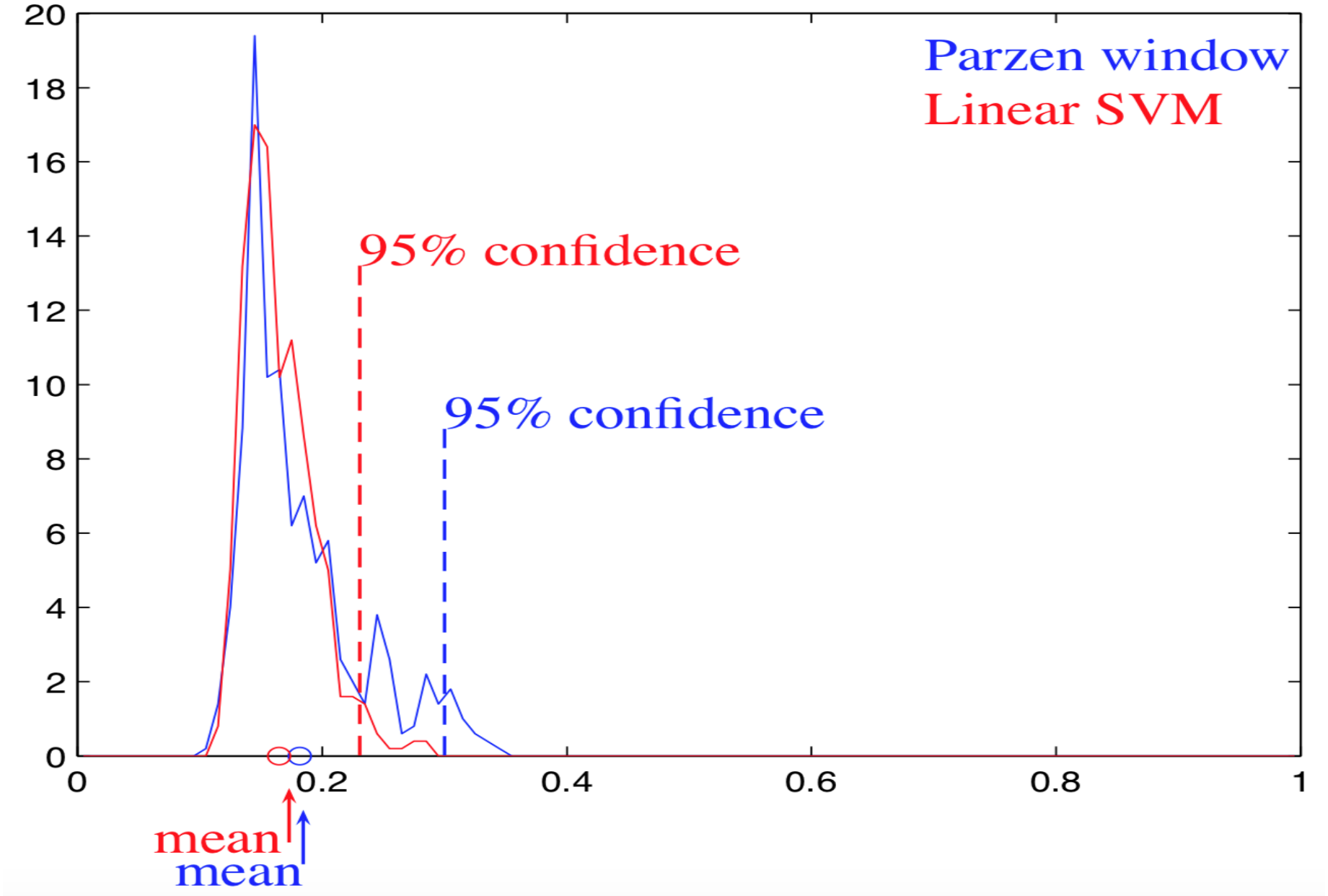
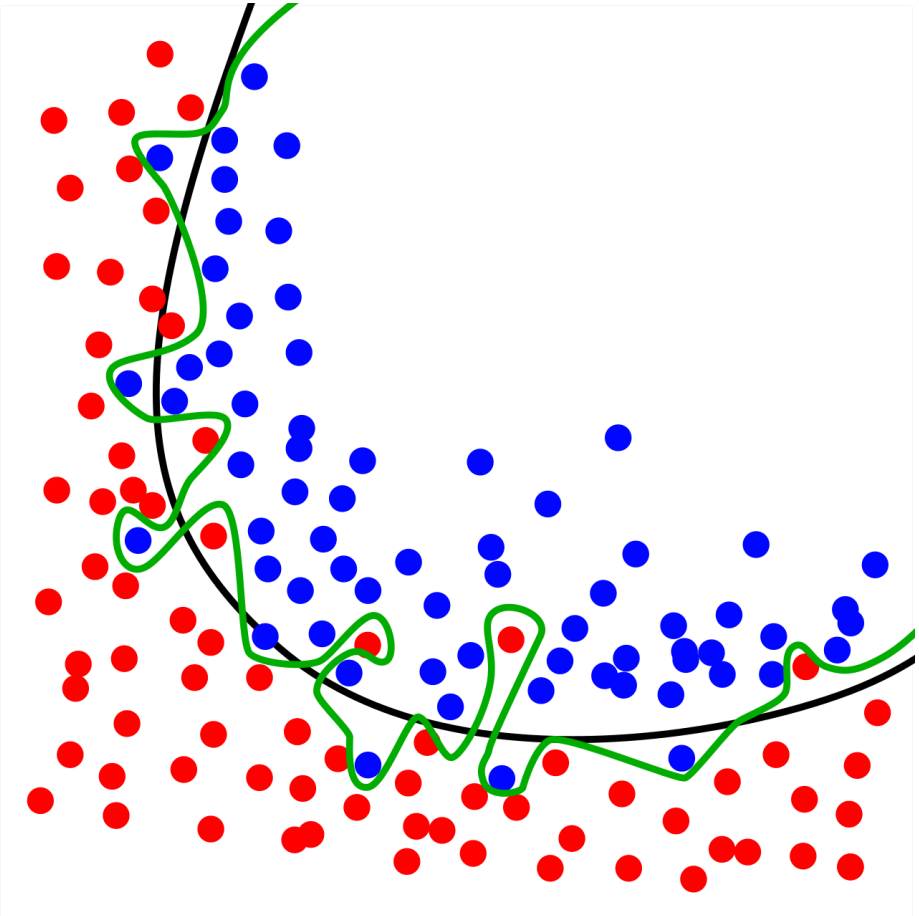
Error distribution



Learning is to be able to generalize



[Figure from Wikipedia]

From examples, what can a system learn about the underlying phenomenon?

Memorizing the already seen data is usually bad $\longrightarrow$ overfitting

Generalization is the ability to 'perform' well on unseen data.

Statistical Learning Theory is about high confidence

For a fixed algorithm, function class and sample size, generating random samples $\longrightarrow$ distribution of test errors

- Focusing on the mean of the error distribution?
  - ▷ can be misleading: learner only has one sample
- Statistical Learning Theory: tail of the distribution
  - ▷ finding bounds which hold with high probability over random samples of size m
- Compare to a statistical test – at 99% confidence level
  - ▷ chances of the conclusion not being true are less than 1%
- PAC: probably approximately correct (Valiant, 1984)
  Use a 'confidence parameter' δ: $\mathbb{P}^m[\text{large error}] \leqslant \delta$
  δ is the probability of being misled by the training set
- Hence high confidence: $\mathbb{P}^m[\text{approximately correct}] \geqslant 1 - \delta$

Mathematical formalization

Learning algorithm $\mathsf{A} : \mathcal{Z}^m \to \mathcal{H}$

- $\mathcal{Z} = \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$

  $\mathcal{X}$ = set of inputs

  $\mathcal{Y}$ = set of outputs (e.g. labels)

- $\mathcal{H}$ = hypothesis class

  = set of predictors

  (e.g. classifiers)

  functions $\mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$

Training set (aka sample): $S_m = ((X_1, Y_1), \ldots, (X_m, Y_m))$
a finite sequence of input-output examples.
Classical assumptions:

- A data-generating distribution $\mathbb{P}$ over $\mathcal{Z}$.
- Learner doesn't know $\mathbb{P}$, only sees the training set.
- The training set examples are *i.i.d.* from $\mathbb{P}$: $S_m \sim \mathbb{P}^m$

▷ these can be relaxed (mostly beyond the scope of this tutorial)

What to achieve from the sample?

Use the available sample to:

1. learn a predictor
2. certify the predictor's performance

Learning a predictor:

- algorithm driven by some learning principle
- informed by prior knowledge resulting in inductive bias

Certifying performance:

- what happens beyond the training set
- generalization bounds

Actually these two goals interact with each other!

Risk (aka error) measures

A loss function $\ell(h(X), Y)$ is used to measure the discrepancy between a predicted output $h(X)$ and the true output Y.

Empirical risk: $R_{\text{in}}(h) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \ell(h(X_i), Y_i)$
(in-sample)

Theoretical risk: $R_{\text{out}}(h) = \mathbb{E}\big[\ell(h(X), Y)\big]$
(out-of-sample)

Examples:

- $\ell(h(X), Y) = \mathbf{1}[h(X) \neq Y]$: 0-1 loss (classification)
- $\ell(h(X), Y) = (Y - h(X))^2$: square loss (regression)
- $\ell(h(X), Y) = (1 - Yh(X))_+$: hinge loss
- $\ell(h(X), 1) = -\log(h(X))$: log loss (density estimation)

Generalization

If predictor h does well on the in-sample (X, Y) pairs...

...will it still do well on out-of-sample pairs?

Generalization gap: $\Delta(h) = R_{\text{out}}(h) - R_{\text{in}}(h)$

Upper bounds: w.h.p. $\Delta(h) \leqslant \epsilon(m, \delta)$

- $R_{\text{out}}(h) \leqslant R_{\text{in}}(h) + \epsilon(m, \delta)$

Lower bounds: w.h.p. $\Delta(h) \geqslant \tilde{\epsilon}(m, \delta)$

Flavours:

- distribution-free
- algorithm-free
- distribution-dependent
- algorithm-dependent

Why you should care about generalization bounds

Generalization bounds are a safety check: give a theoretical guarantee on the performance of a learning algorithm on any unseen data.

Generalization bounds:

- may be computed with the training sample only, do not depend on any test sample
- provide a computable control on the error on any unseen data with prespecified confidence
- explain why specific learning algorithms actually work
- and even lead to designing new algorithm which scale to more complex settings

Building block: one single hypothesis

For one fixed (non data-dependent) h:

$$\mathbb{E}[R_{\text{in}}(h)] = \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m}\ell(h(X_i), Y_i)\right] = R_{\text{out}}(h)$$

- $\mathbb{P}^m[\Delta(h) > \epsilon] = \mathbb{P}^m\left[\mathbb{E}[R_{\text{in}}(h)] - R_{\text{in}}(h) > \epsilon\right]$ deviation ineq.
- $\ell(h(X_i), Y_i)$ are independent r.v.'s
- If $0 \leqslant \ell(h(X), Y) \leqslant 1$, using Hoeffding's inequality:

$$\mathbb{P}^m\left[\Delta(h) > \epsilon\right] \leqslant \exp\left\{-2m\epsilon^2\right\} = \delta$$

- Given $\delta \in (0, 1)$, equate RHS to δ, solve equation for ϵ, get

$$\mathbb{P}^m\left[\Delta(h) > \sqrt{(1/2m)\log(1/\delta)}\right] \leqslant \delta$$

- with probability $\geqslant 1 - \delta$, $\quad R_{\text{out}}(h) \leqslant R_{\text{in}}(h) + \sqrt{\frac{1}{2m}\log\left(\frac{1}{\delta}\right)}$

Finite function class

Algorithm $A : \mathcal{Z}^m \to \mathcal{H}$ Function class $\mathcal{H}$ with $|\mathcal{H}| < \infty$

Aim for a uniform bound: $\mathbb{P}^m\Big[\forall f \in \mathcal{H},\ \ \Delta(f) \leqslant \epsilon\Big] \geqslant 1 - \delta$

Basic tool: $\mathbb{P}^m(E_1 \text{ or } E_2 \text{ or } \cdots) \leqslant \mathbb{P}^m(E_1) + \mathbb{P}^m(E_2) + \cdots$

known as the union bound (aka countable sub-additivity)

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}^m\Big[\exists f \in \mathcal{H},\ \ \Delta(f) > \epsilon\Big] &\leqslant \sum_{f\in\mathcal{H}} \mathbb{P}^m\Big[\Delta(f) > \epsilon\Big] \\ &\leqslant |\mathcal{H}| \exp\left\{-2m\epsilon^2\right\} = \delta\end{aligned}$$

w.p. $\geqslant 1 - \delta$, $\quad \forall h \in \mathcal{H},\ \ R_{\text{out}}(h) \leqslant R_{\text{in}}(h) + \sqrt{\frac{1}{2m}\log\left(\frac{|\mathcal{H}|}{\delta}\right)}$

This is a worst-case approach, as it considers uniformly all hypotheses.

Towards non-uniform learnability

A route to improve this is to consider data-dependent hypotheses h_i, associated with prior distribution $P = (p_i)_i$ (structural risk minimization):

$$\text{w.p. } \geqslant 1-\delta, \quad \forall h_i \in \mathcal{H}, \quad R_{\text{out}}(h_i) \leqslant R_{\text{in}}(h_i) + \sqrt{\frac{1}{2m}\log\left(\frac{1}{p_i\delta}\right)}$$

Note that we can also write

$$\text{w.p. } \geqslant 1-\delta, \quad \forall h_i \in \mathcal{H},$$
$$R_{\text{out}}(h_i) \leqslant R_{\text{in}}(h_i) + \sqrt{\frac{1}{2m}\left(\mathrm{KL}(\mathrm{Dirac}(h_i)\|P) + \log\left(\frac{1}{\delta}\right)\right)}$$

- First attempt to introduce hypothesis-dependence (i.e. complexity depends on the chosen function)
- This leads to a bound-minimizing algorithm:

$$\text{return} \quad \arg\min_{h_i\in\mathcal{H}} \left\{ R_{\text{in}}(h_i) + \sqrt{\frac{1}{2m}\log\left(\frac{1}{p_i\delta}\right)} \right\}$$

Uncountably infinite function class?

Algorithm $A : \mathcal{Z}^m \to \mathcal{H}$ Function class $\mathcal{H}$ with $|\mathcal{H}| \geqslant |\mathbb{N}|$

- Vapnik & Chervonenkis dimension: for $\mathcal{H}$ with $d = VC(\mathcal{H})$ finite, for any m, for any $\delta \in (0, 1)$,

  $$\text{w.p.} \geqslant 1 - \delta, \quad \forall h \in \mathcal{H}, \quad \Delta(h) \leqslant \sqrt{\frac{8d}{m} \log\left(\frac{2em}{d}\right) + \frac{8}{m} \log\left(\frac{4}{\delta}\right)}$$

  The bound holds for all functions in the class (uniform over $\mathcal{H}$) and for all distributions (uniform over $\mathbb{P}$)

- Rademacher complexity (measures how well a function can align with randomly perturbed labels – can be used to take advantage of margin assumptions)

  These approaches are suited to analyse the performance of individual functions, and take some account of correlations
  $\longrightarrow$ Extension: PAC-Bayes allows to consider *distributions* over hypotheses.

The plan

The PAC-Bayes framework

- Before data, fix a distribution $P \in M_1(\mathcal{H})$ ▷ 'prior'
- Based on data, learn a distribution $Q \in M_1(\mathcal{H})$ ▷ 'posterior'
- Predictions:
  - draw $h \sim Q$ and predict with the chosen h.
  - each prediction with a fresh random draw.

The risk measures $R_{\text{in}}(h)$ and $R_{\text{out}}(h)$ are extended by averaging:

$$R_{\text{in}}(Q) \equiv \int_{\mathcal{H}} R_{\text{in}}(h)\, dQ(h) \qquad R_{\text{out}}(Q) \equiv \int_{\mathcal{H}} R_{\text{out}}(h)\, dQ(h)$$

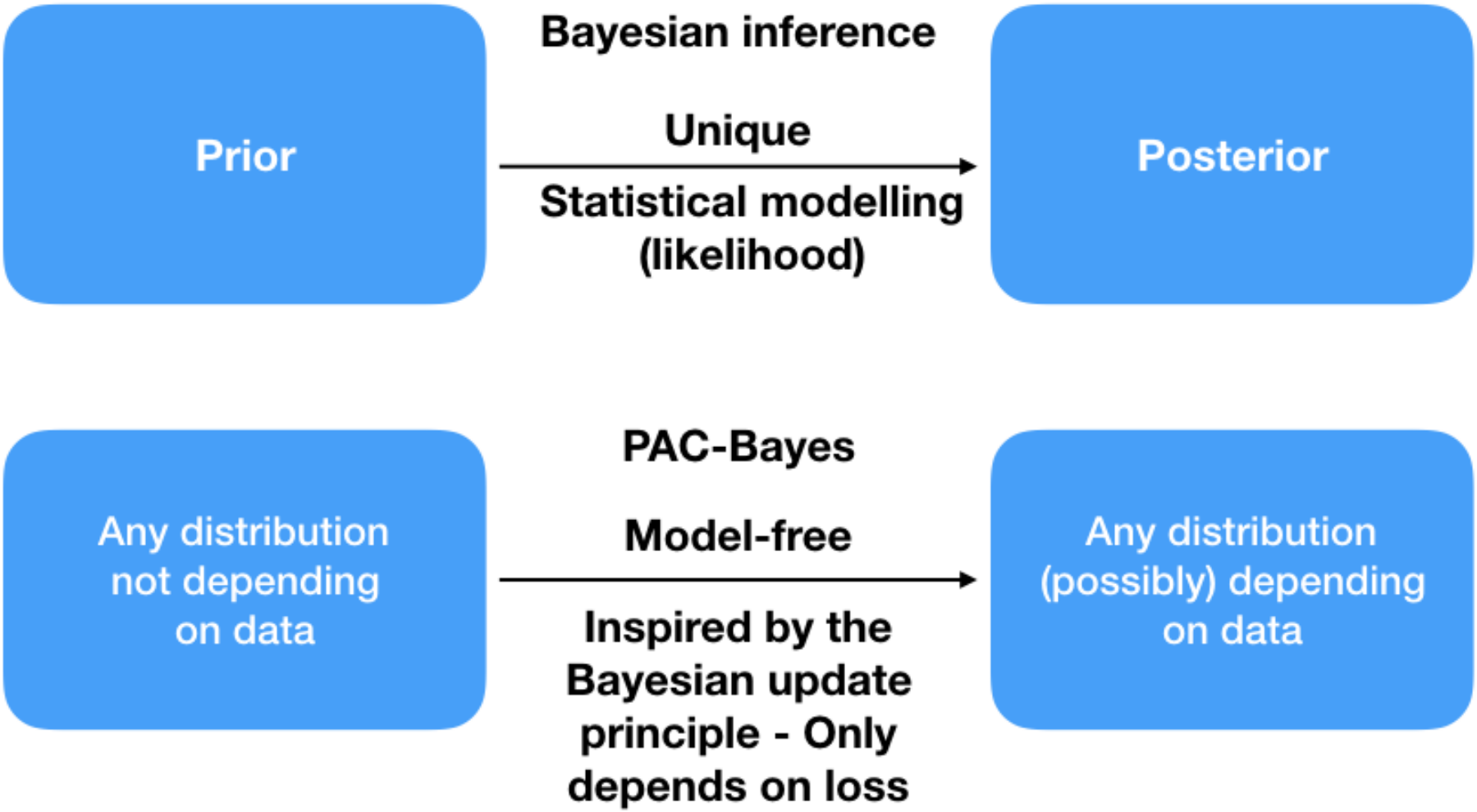
$\mathrm{KL}(Q\|P) = \underset{h\sim Q}{\mathbf{E}} \ln \frac{Q(h)}{P(h)}$ is the Kullback-Leibler divergence.

Recall the bound for data-dependent hypotheses h_i associated with prior weights p_i:

w.p. $\geqslant 1-\delta$, $\quad \forall h_i \in \mathcal{H}$,

$$R_{\text{out}}(h_i) \leqslant R_{\text{in}}(h_i) + \sqrt{\frac{1}{2m}\left(\mathrm{KL}(\mathrm{Dirac}(h_i)\|P) + \log\left(\frac{1}{\delta}\right)\right)}$$

PAC-Bayes aka Generalized Bayes



"Prior": exploration mechanism of $\mathcal{H}$

"Posterior" is the twisted prior after confronting with data

PAC-Bayes bounds vs. Bayesian learning

- Prior
  - PAC-Bayes bounds: bounds hold even if prior incorrect
  - Bayesian: inference must assume prior is correct
- Posterior
  - PAC-Bayes bounds: bound holds for all posteriors
  - Bayesian: posterior computed by Bayesian inference, depends on statistical modeling
- Data distribution
  - PAC-Bayes bounds: can be used to define prior, hence no need to be known explicitly
  - Bayesian: input effectively excluded from the analysis, randomness lies in the noise model generating the output

A history of PAC-Bayes

Pre-history: PAC analysis of Bayesian estimators

Shawe-Taylor and Williamson (1997); Shawe-Taylor et al. (1998)

Birth: PAC-Bayesian bound

McAllester (1998, 1999)

McAllester Bound

For any prior P, any $\delta \in (0, 1]$, we have

$$\mathbb{P}^m\left(\forall\, Q \text{ on } \mathcal{H}\colon\ R_{\text{out}}(Q) \leqslant R_{\text{in}}(Q) + \sqrt{\frac{\text{KL}(Q\|P) + \ln\frac{2\sqrt{m}}{\delta}}{2m}}\right) \geqslant 1 - \delta\,,$$

A history of PAC-Bayes

Introduction of the kl form

Langford and Seeger (2001); Seeger (2002, 2003); Langford (2005)

Langford and Seeger Bound

For any prior P, any $\delta \in (0, 1]$, we have

$$\mathbb{P}^m \left(\begin{array}{l} \forall\, Q \text{ on } \mathcal{H}: \\ \mathrm{kl}(R_{\mathrm{in}}(Q) \| R_{\mathrm{out}}(Q)) \leqslant \frac{1}{m} \left[\mathrm{KL}(Q\|P) + \ln \frac{2\sqrt{m}}{\delta} \right] \end{array} \right) \geqslant 1 - \delta \,,$$

where $\mathrm{kl}(q\|p) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} q \ln \frac{q}{p} + (1-q) \ln \frac{1-q}{1-p} \geqslant 2(q-p)^2$.

A General PAC-Bayesian Theorem

Δ-function: "distance" between $R_{\text{in}}(Q)$ and $R_{\text{out}}(Q)$

Convex function $\Delta : [0,1] \times [0,1] \to \mathbb{R}$.

General theorem

Bégin et al. (2014, 2016); Germain (2015)

For any prior P on $\mathcal{H}$, for any $\delta \in (0,1]$, and for any Δ-function, we have, with probability at least $1-\delta$ over the choice of $S_m \sim \mathbb{P}^m$,

$$\forall\, Q \text{ on } \mathcal{H}: \quad \Delta\Big(R_{\text{in}}(Q), R_{\text{out}}(Q)\Big) \leqslant \frac{1}{m}\left[\text{KL}(Q\|P) + \ln \frac{\mathcal{I}_\Delta(m)}{\delta}\right],$$

where

$$\mathcal{I}_\Delta(m) = \sup_{r\in[0,1]} \left[\sum_{k=0}^{m} \underbrace{\binom{m}{k} r^k (1-r)^{m-k}}_{\textbf{Bin}\left(k;m,r\right)} e^{m\Delta\left(\frac{k}{m},r\right)}\right].$$

General theorem

$$\mathbb{P}^m\left(\forall\, Q \text{ on } \mathcal{H}:\ \Delta\Big(R_{\text{in}}(Q), R_{\text{out}}(Q)\Big) \leq \frac{1}{m}\left[\mathrm{KL}(Q\|P) + \ln\frac{\mathcal{I}_\Delta(m)}{\delta}\right]\right) \geqslant 1-\delta\,.$$

Proof ideas.

Change of Measure Inequality (Csiszár, 1975; Donsker and Varadhan, 1975)

For any P and Q on $\mathcal{H}$, and for any measurable function $\phi : \mathcal{H} \to \mathbb{R}$, we have

$$\mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{h\sim Q}\phi(h) \leqslant \mathrm{KL}(Q\|P) + \ln\left(\mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{h\sim P} e^{\phi(h)}\right).$$

Markov's inequality

$$\mathbb{P}\left(X \geqslant a\right) \leq \frac{\mathbf{E}\,X}{a} \quad\Longleftrightarrow\quad \mathbb{P}\left(X \leqslant \frac{\mathbf{E}\,X}{\delta}\right) \geq 1-\delta\,.$$

Probability of observing k misclassifications among m examples

Given a voter h, consider a **binomial variable** of m trials with **success** $R_{\text{out}}(h)$:

$$\mathbb{P}^m\Big(R_{\text{in}}(h) = \tfrac{k}{m}\Big) \quad = \quad \binom{m}{k}\Big(R_{\text{out}}(h)\Big)^k\Big(1-R_{\text{out}}(h)\Big)^{m-k} \quad = \quad \mathbf{Bin}\Big(k; m, R_{\text{out}}(h)\Big)$$

$$\mathbb{P}^m\left(\forall\, Q \text{ on } \mathcal{H}:\ \Delta\Big(R_{\text{in}}(Q), R_{\text{out}}(Q)\Big) \leq \frac{1}{m}\left[\mathrm{KL}(Q\|P) + \ln\frac{\mathcal{I}_\Delta(m)}{\delta}\right]\right) \geqslant 1-\delta\,.$$

Proof

$$m\cdot\Delta\Big(\mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{h\sim Q} R_{\text{in}}(h), \mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{h\sim Q} R_{\text{out}}(h)\Big)$$

Jensen's Inequality $\leqslant$
$$\mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{h\sim Q} m\cdot\Delta\Big(R_{\text{in}}(h), R_{\text{out}}(h)\Big)$$

Change of measure $\leqslant$
$$\mathrm{KL}(Q\|P) + \ln \mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{h\sim P} e^{m\Delta\left(R_{\text{in}}(h), R_{\text{out}}(h)\right)}$$

Markov's Inequality $\leq_{1-\delta}$
$$\mathrm{KL}(Q\|P) + \ln\frac{1}{\delta}\mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{S'_m\sim\mathbb{P}^m}\mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{h\sim P} e^{m\cdot\Delta(R_{\text{in}}(h), R_{\text{out}}(h))}$$

Expectation swap $=$
$$\mathrm{KL}(Q\|P) + \ln\frac{1}{\delta}\mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{h\sim P}\mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{S'_m\sim\mathbb{P}^m} e^{m\cdot\Delta(R_{\text{in}}(h), R_{\text{out}}(h))}$$

Binomial law $=$
$$\mathrm{KL}(Q\|P) + \ln\frac{1}{\delta}\mathop{\mathbf{E}}_{h\sim P}\sum_{k=0}^{m}\mathbf{Bin}\big(k; m, R_{\text{out}}(h)\big)\, e^{m\cdot\Delta\left(\frac{k}{m}, R_{\text{out}}(h)\right)}$$

Supremum over risk $\leqslant$
$$\mathrm{KL}(Q\|P) + \ln\frac{1}{\delta}\sup_{r\in[0,1]}\left[\sum_{k=0}^{m}\mathbf{Bin}\big(k; m, r\big)\, e^{m\Delta\left(\frac{k}{m}, r\right)}\right]$$

$=$
$$\mathrm{KL}(Q\|P) + \ln\frac{1}{\delta}\,\mathcal{I}_\Delta(m)\,.$$

□

General theorem

$$\mathbb{P}^m\left(\forall\, Q \text{ on } \mathcal{H}:\ \Delta\Big(R_{\text{in}}(Q), R_{\text{out}}(Q)\Big) \leq \frac{1}{m}\left[\mathrm{KL}(Q\|P) + \ln\frac{\mathcal{I}_\Delta(m)}{\delta}\right]\right) \geqslant 1-\delta\,.$$

Corollary

[...] with probability at least $1-\delta$ *over the choice of* $S_m \sim \mathbb{P}^m$*, for all* Q *on* $\mathcal{H}$ *:*

(a) $\mathrm{kl}\Big(R_{\text{in}}(Q)), R_{\text{out}}(Q)\Big) \leq \frac{1}{m}\left[\mathrm{KL}(Q\|P) + \ln\frac{2\sqrt{m}}{\delta}\right]$ *Langford and Seeger (2001)*

(b) $R_{\text{out}}(Q) \leq R_{\text{in}}(Q) + \sqrt{\frac{1}{2m}\left[\mathrm{KL}(Q\|P) + \ln\frac{2\sqrt{m}}{\delta}\right]}\,,$ *McAllester (1999, 2003a)*

(c) $R_{\text{out}}(Q) \leq \frac{1}{1-e^{-c}}\left(c\cdot R_{\text{in}}(Q) + \frac{1}{m}\left[\mathrm{KL}(Q\|P) + \ln\frac{1}{\delta}\right]\right),$ *Catoni (2007)*

(d) $R_{\text{out}}(Q) \leq R_{\text{in}}(Q) + \frac{1}{\lambda}\left[\mathrm{KL}(Q\|P) + \ln\frac{1}{\delta} + f(\lambda, m)\right].$ *Alquier et al. (2016)*

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{kl}(q,p) &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} q\ln\tfrac{q}{p} + (1-q)\ln\tfrac{1-q}{1-p} \geqslant 2(q-p)^2\,,\\
\Delta_c(q,p) &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} -\ln[1-(1-e^{-c})\cdot p] - c\cdot q\,,\\
\Delta_\lambda(q,p) &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \tfrac{\lambda}{m}(p-q)\,.
\end{aligned}$$

Recap

What we've seen so far

- Statistical learning theory is about high confidence control of generalization
- PAC-Bayes is a generic, powerful tool to derive generalization bounds

What is coming next

- PAC-Bayes application to large classes of algorithms
- PAC-Bayesian-inspired algorithms
- Case studies

A flexible framework

Since 1997, PAC-Bayes has been successfully used in many machine learning settings.

Statistical learning theory *Shawe-Taylor and Williamson (1997); McAllester (1998, 1999, 2003a,b); Seeger (2002, 2003); Maurer (2004); Catoni (2004, 2007); Audibert and Bousquet (2007); Thiemann et al. (2017)*

SVMs & linear classifiers *Langford and Shawe-Taylor (2002); McAllester (2003a); Germain et al. (2009a)*

Supervised learning algorithms reinterpreted as bound minimizers *Ambroladze et al. (2007); Shawe-Taylor and Hardoon (2009); Germain et al. (2009b)*

High-dimensional regression *Alquier and Lounici (2011); Alquier and Biau (2013); Guedj and Alquier (2013); Li et al. (2013); Guedj and Robbiano (2018)*

Classification *Langford and Shawe-Taylor (2002); Catoni (2004, 2007); Lacasse et al. (2007); Parrado-Hernández et al. (2012)*

A flexible framework

Transductive learning, domain adaptation *Derbeko et al. (2004); Bégin et al. (2014); Germain et al. (2016)*

Non-iid or heavy-tailed data *Lever et al. (2010); Seldin et al. (2011, 2012); Alquier and Guedj (2018)*

Density estimation *Seldin and Tishby (2010); Higgs and Shawe-Taylor (2010)*

Reinforcement learning *Fard and Pineau (2010); Fard et al. (2011); Seldin et al. (2011, 2012); Ghavamzadeh et al. (2015)*

Sequential learning *Gerchinovitz (2011); Li et al. (2018)*

Algorithmic stability, differential privacy *London et al. (2014); London (2017); Dziugaite and Roy (2018a,b); Rivasplata et al. (2018)*

Deep neural networks *Dziugaite and Roy (2017); Neyshabur et al. (2017)*

PAC-Bayes-inspired learning algorithms

In all the previous bounds, with an arbitrarily high probability and for any posterior distribution Q,

$$\text{Error on unseen data} \leqslant \text{Error on sample} + \text{complexity term}$$

$$R_{\text{out}}(Q) \leqslant R_{\text{in}}(Q) + F(Q, \cdot)$$

This defines a principled strategy to obtain new learning algorithms:

$$h \sim Q^\star$$

$$Q^\star \in \underset{Q \ll P}{\arg\inf} \left\{ R_{\text{in}}(Q) + F(Q, \cdot) \right\}$$

(optimization problem which can be solved or approximated by [stochastic] gradient descent-flavored methods, Monte Carlo Markov Chain, Variational Bayes...)

PAC-Bayes interpretation of celebrated algorithms

SVM with a sigmoid loss and KL-regularized Adaboost have been reinterpreted as minimizers of PAC-Bayesian bounds.

Ambroladze et al. (2007), *Shawe-Taylor and Hardoon (2009)*, *Germain et al. (2009b)*

For any $\lambda > 0$, the minimizer of

$$\left\{ R_{\mathrm{in}}(Q) + \frac{\mathrm{KL}(Q, P)}{\lambda} \right\}$$

is the celebrated Gibbs posterior

$$Q_\lambda(h) \propto \exp\left(-\lambda R_{\mathrm{in}}(h)\right) P(h), \quad \forall h \in \mathcal{H}.$$

Extreme cases: $\lambda \to 0$ (flat posterior) and $\lambda \to \infty$ (Dirac mass on ERMs). Note: continuous version of the exponentially weighted aggregate (EWA).

Variational definition of KL-divergence (Csiszár, 1975; Donsker and Varadhan, 1975; Catoni, 2004).

Let $(A, \mathcal{A})$ be a measurable space.

(i) For any probability P on $(A, \mathcal{A})$ and any measurable function $\phi : A \to \mathbb{R}$ such that $\int (\exp \circ \phi) \mathrm{d}P < \infty$,

$$\log \int (\exp \circ \phi) \mathrm{d}P = \sup_{Q \ll P} \left\{ \int \phi \mathrm{d}Q - \mathrm{KL}(Q, P) \right\}.$$

(ii) If ϕ is upper-bounded on the support of P, the supremum is reached for the Gibbs distribution G given by

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}G}{\mathrm{d}P}(a) = \frac{\exp \circ \phi(a)}{\int (\exp \circ \phi) \mathrm{d}P}, \quad a \in A.$$

$$\log \int (\exp \circ \phi) \mathrm{d}P = \sup_{Q \ll P} \left\{ \int \phi \mathrm{d}Q - \mathrm{KL}(Q, P) \right\}, \quad \frac{\mathrm{d}G}{\mathrm{d}P} = \frac{\exp \circ \phi}{\int (\exp \circ \phi) \mathrm{d}P}.$$

Proof: let $Q \ll P$.

$$\begin{aligned} -\mathrm{KL}(Q, G) &= -\int \log \left(\frac{\mathrm{d}Q}{\mathrm{d}P} \frac{\mathrm{d}P}{\mathrm{d}G} \right) \mathrm{d}Q \\ &= -\int \log \left(\frac{\mathrm{d}Q}{\mathrm{d}P} \right) \mathrm{d}Q + \int \log \left(\frac{\mathrm{d}G}{\mathrm{d}P} \right) \mathrm{d}Q \\ &= -\mathrm{KL}(Q, P) + \int \phi \mathrm{d}\rho - \log \int (\exp \circ \phi) \, \mathrm{d}P. \end{aligned}$$

$\mathrm{KL}(\cdot, \cdot)$ is non-negative, $Q \mapsto -\mathrm{KL}(Q, G)$ reaches its max. in $Q = G$:

$$0 = \sup_{Q \ll P} \left\{ \int \phi \mathrm{d}Q - \mathrm{KL}(Q, P) \right\} - \log \int (\exp \circ \phi) \, \mathrm{d}P.$$

Take $\phi = -\lambda R_{\mathrm{in}}$,

$$Q_\lambda \propto \exp\left(-\lambda R_{\mathrm{in}}\right) P = \arg\inf_{Q \ll P} \left\{ R_{\mathrm{in}}(Q) + \frac{\mathrm{KL}(Q, P)}{\lambda} \right\}.$$

PAC-Bayes for non-iid or heavy-tailed data

We drop the iid and bounded loss assumptions. For any integer p,

$$\mathcal{M}_p := \int \mathbb{E}\left(|R_{\text{in}}(h) - R_{\text{out}}(h)|^p\right) \mathrm{d}P(h).$$

Csiszár f-divergence: let f be a convex function with $f(1) = 0$,

$$D_f(Q, P) = \int f\left(\frac{\mathrm{d}Q}{\mathrm{d}P}\right) \mathrm{d}P$$

when $Q \ll P$ and $D_f(Q, P) = +\infty$ otherwise.

The KL is given by the special case $\mathrm{KL}(Q\|P) = D_{x\log(x)}(Q, P)$.

PAC-Bayes with f-divergences *Alquier and Guedj (2018)*

Let $\phi_p \colon x \mapsto x^p$. Fix $p > 1$, $q = \frac{p}{p-1}$ and $\delta \in (0,1)$. With probability at least $1-\delta$ we have for any distribution Q

$$|R_{\text{out}}(Q) - R_{\text{in}}(Q)| \leqslant \left(\frac{\mathcal{M}_q}{\delta}\right)^{\frac{1}{q}} \left(D_{\phi_p - 1}(Q, P) + 1\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}.$$

The bound decouples

- the moment $\mathcal{M}_q$ (which depends on the distribution of the data)
- and the divergence $D_{\phi_p - 1}(Q, P)$ (measure of complexity).

Corolloray: with probability at least $1-\delta$, for any Q,

$$R_{\text{out}}(Q) \leqslant R_{\text{in}}(Q) + \left(\frac{\mathcal{M}_q}{\delta}\right)^{\frac{1}{q}} \left(D_{\phi_p - 1}(Q, P) + 1\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}.$$

Again, strong incitement to define the posterior as the minimizer of the right-hand side!

Proof

Let $\Delta(h) := |R_{\text{in}}(h) - R_{\text{out}}(h)|$.

$$\left| \int R_{\text{out}} \mathrm{d}Q - \int R_{\text{in}} \mathrm{d}Q \right|$$

Jensen

$$\leqslant \int \Delta \mathrm{d}Q$$

Change of measure

$$= \int \Delta \frac{\mathrm{d}Q}{\mathrm{d}P} \mathrm{d}P$$

Holder

$$\leqslant \left(\int \Delta^q \mathrm{d}P \right)^{\frac{1}{q}} \left(\int \left(\frac{\mathrm{d}Q}{\mathrm{d}P} \right)^p \mathrm{d}P \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

Markov

$$\underset{1-\delta}{\leqslant} \left(\frac{\mathbb{E} \int \Delta^q \mathrm{d}P}{\delta} \right)^{\frac{1}{q}} \left(\int \left(\frac{\mathrm{d}Q}{\mathrm{d}P} \right)^p \mathrm{d}P \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

$$= \left(\frac{\mathcal{M}_q}{\delta} \right)^{\frac{1}{q}} \left(D_{\phi_p - 1}(Q, P) + 1 \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}.$$

Oracle bounds

Catoni (2004, 2007) further derived PAC-Bayesian bound for the Gibbs posterior

$$Q_\lambda \propto \exp\left(-\lambda R_{\text{in}}\right) P.$$

Assume that the loss is upper-bounded by B, for any $\lambda > 0$, with probability greater that $1 - \delta$

$$R_{\text{out}}(Q_\lambda) \leqslant \inf_{Q \ll P} \left\{ R_{\text{out}}(Q) + \frac{\lambda B}{m} + \frac{2}{\lambda} \left(\mathrm{KL}(Q, P) + \log \frac{2}{\delta} \right) \right\}$$

(can be optimized with respect to λ)

Pros: Q_λ now enjoys stronger guarantees as its performance is comparable to the (forever unknown) oracle.
Cons: the right-hand side is no longer computable.

The plan

1 Elements of Statistical Learning

2 The PAC-Bayesian Theory

3 State-of-the-art PAC-Bayes results: a case study
- Localized PAC-Bayes: data- or distribution-dependent priors
- Stability and PAC-Bayes
- PAC-Bayes analysis of deep neural networks

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Data- or distribution-dependent priors

PAC-Bayesian bounds express a tradeoff between empirical accuracy and a measure of complexity

$$R_{\text{out}}(Q) \leqslant R_{\text{in}}(Q) + \sqrt{\frac{\text{KL}(Q\|P) + \ln \frac{\xi(m)}{\delta}}{2m}}.$$

How can this complexity be controlled?

- An important component in the PAC-Bayes analysis is the choice of the **prior distribution**
- The results hold whatever the choice of prior, provided that it is chosen *before* seeing the data sample
- Are there ways we can choose a 'better' prior?
- Will explore:
  - using part of the data to *learn the prior* for SVMs, but also more interestingly and more generally
  - defining the prior in terms of the *data generating distribution (aka localised PAC-Bayes)*.

SVM Application

- Prior and posterior distributions are spherical Gaussians:
  - Prior centered at the origin
  - Posterior centered at a scaling μ of the unit SVM weight vector
- Implies KL term is $\mu^2/2$
- We can compute the stochastic error of the posterior distribution exactly and it behaves like a *soft margin*; scaling μ trades between margin loss and KL
- Bound holds for all μ, so choose to optimise the bound
- Generalization of deterministic classifier can be bounded by *twice* stochastic error

Learning the prior for SVMs

- Bound depends on the **distance between prior and posterior**
- Better prior (closer to posterior) would lead to **tighter bound**
- **Learn** the prior P with part of the data
- Introduce the learnt prior **in the bound**
- Compute stochastic error with **remaining data**: **PrPAC**
- We can go a step further:
  - Consider scaling the prior in the chosen direction: **τ-PrPAC**
  - adapt the SVM algorithm to optimise the new bound: **η-Prior SVM**
- We present some results to show the bounds and their use in model selection (regularisation and band-width of kernel).

Results

		Classifier					
		SVM				ηPrior SVM	
Problem		2FCV	10FCV	PAC	PrPAC	PrPAC	τ-PrPAC
digits	Bound	–	–	0.175	0.107	0.050	**0.047**
	TE	**0.007**	**0.007**	**0.007**	0.014	0.010	0.009
waveform	Bound	–	–	0.203	0.185	0.178	**0.176**
	TE	0.090	0.086	**0.084**	0.088	0.087	0.086
pima	Bound	–	–	0.424	0.420	0.428	**0.416**
	TE	0.244	0.245	**0.229**	**0.229**	0.233	0.233
ringnorm	Bound	–	–	0.203	0.110	0.053	**0.050**
	TE	**0.016**	**0.016**	0.018	0.018	**0.016**	**0.016**
spam	Bound	–	–	0.254	0.198	0.186	**0.178**
	TE	0.066	**0.063**	0.067	0.077	0.070	0.072

Results

- Bounds are remarkably tight: for final column average factor between bound and TE is under 3.
- Model selection from the bounds is as good as 10FCV: in fact all but one of the PAC-Bayes model selections give better averages for TE.
- The better bounds do not appear to give better model selection - best model selection is from the simplest bound.
  Ambroladze et al. (2007), *Germain et al. (2009a)*

Distribution-defined priors

- Consider P and Q are Gibbs-Boltzmann distributions

$$P_\gamma(h) := \frac{1}{Z'} e^{-\gamma R_{\text{out}}(h)} \qquad Q_\gamma(h) := \frac{1}{Z} e^{-\gamma R_{\text{in}}(h)}$$

- These distributions are hard to work with since we cannot apply the bound to a single weight vector, but the bounds can be very tight:

$$\text{kl}(R_{\text{in}}(Q_\gamma) || R_{\text{out}}(Q_\gamma)) \leqslant \frac{1}{m}\left(\frac{\gamma}{\sqrt{m}}\sqrt{\ln\frac{8\sqrt{m}}{\delta}} + \frac{\gamma^2}{4m} + \ln\frac{4\sqrt{m}}{\delta}\right)$$

with the only uncertainty the dependence on γ.

Catoni (2003), *Catoni (2007)*, *Lever et al. (2010)*

Observations

- We cannot compute the prior distribution P or even sample from it:
  - Note that this would not be possible to consider in normal Bayesian inference;
  - Trick here is that the error measures only depend on the posterior Q, while the bound depends on KL between posterior and prior: an estimate of this KL is made without knowing the prior explicitly

- The Gibbs distributions are hard to sample from so not easy to work with this bound.

Other distribution defined priors

- An alternative distribution defined prior for an SVM is to place symmetrical Gaussian at the weight vector: $\mathbf{w}_p = \mathbb{E}_{(\mathbf{x},y)\sim D}(y\,\boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}))$ to give distributions that are easier to work with, but results not impressive...

- What if we were to take the expected weight vector returned from a random training set of size m: then the KL between posterior and prior is related to the concentration of weight vectors from different training sets

- This is connected to stability...

The plan

Stability

Uniform hypothesis sensitivity β at sample size m:

$$\| \mathsf{A}(z_{1:m}) - \mathsf{A}(z'_{1:m}) \| \leqslant \beta \sum_{i=1}^{m} \mathbf{1}[z_i \neq z'_i]$$

$(z_1, \ldots, z_m)$

- $\mathsf{A}(z_{1:m}) \in \mathcal{H}$ normed space
- $w_m = \mathsf{A}(z_{1:m})$ 'weight vector'

$(z'_1, \ldots, z'_m)$

- Lipschitz
- smoothness

Uniform loss sensitivity β at sample size m:

$$|\ell(\mathsf{A}(z_{1:m}), z) - \ell(\mathsf{A}(z'_{1:m}), z)| \leqslant \beta \sum_{i=1}^{m} \mathbf{1}[z_i \neq z'_i]$$

- worst-case
- data-insensitive
- distribution-insensitive
- Open: data-dependent?

Generalization from Stability

If A has sensitivity β at sample size m, then for any $\delta \in (0, 1)$,

w.p. $\geqslant 1 - \delta$, $\quad R_{\text{out}}(h) \leqslant R_{\text{in}}(h) + \epsilon(\beta, m, \delta)$

Bousquet and Elisseeff (2002)

- the intuition is that if individual examples do not affect the loss of an algorithm then it will be concentrated
- can be applied to kernel methods where β is related to the regularisation constant, but bounds are quite weak
- question: algorithm output is highly concentrated
  $\Longrightarrow$ stronger results?

Stability + PAC-Bayes

If A has uniform hypothesis stability β at sample size m, then for any $\delta \in (0,1)$, w.p. $\geqslant 1-2\delta$,

$$\mathrm{kl}\big(R_{\mathrm{in}}(Q)\|R_{\mathrm{out}}(Q)\big) \leqslant \frac{\frac{m\beta^2}{2\sigma^2}\left(1+\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}\log\left(\frac{1}{\delta}\right)}\right)^2 + \log\left(\frac{m+1}{\delta}\right)}{m}$$

Gaussian randomization

- $P = \mathcal{N}(\mathbb{E}[W_m], \sigma^2 I)$
- $Q = \mathcal{N}(W_m, \sigma^2 I)$
- $\mathrm{KL}(Q\|P) = \frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\|W_m - \mathbb{E}[W_n]\|^2$

Main proof components:

- w.p. $\geqslant 1-\delta$, $\mathrm{kl}\big(R_{\mathrm{in}}(Q)\|R_{\mathrm{out}}(Q)\big) \leqslant \frac{\mathrm{KL}(Q\|Q_0)+\log\left(\frac{m+1}{\delta}\right)}{m}$
- w.p. $\geqslant 1-\delta$, $\|W_m - \mathbb{E}[W_m]\| \leqslant \sqrt{m}\,\beta\left(1+\sqrt{\frac{1}{2}\log\left(\frac{1}{\delta}\right)}\right)$

Dziugaite and Roy (2018a), Rivasplata et al. (2018)

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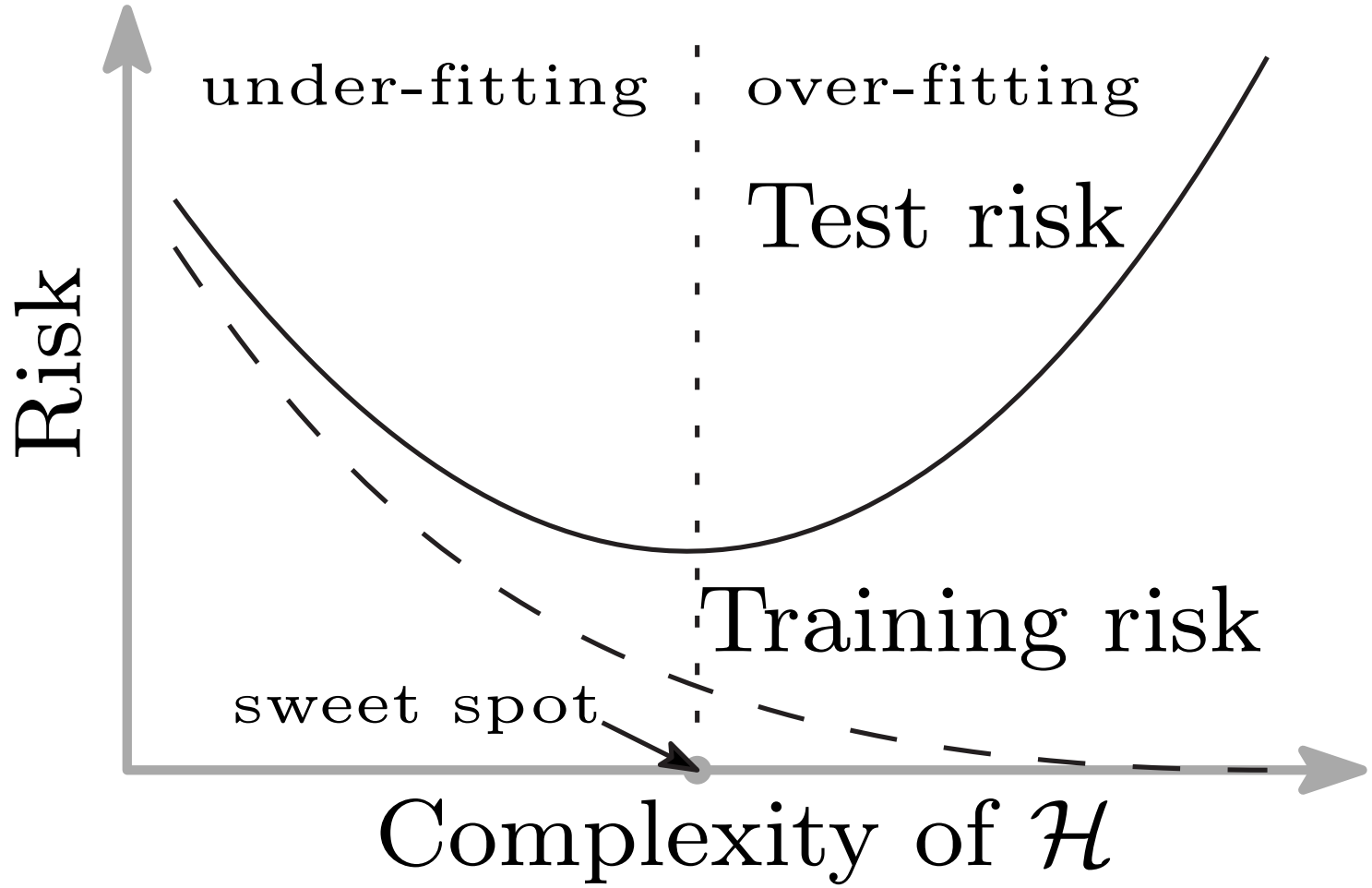
Is deep learning breaking the statistical paradigm we know?

Neural networks architectures trained on massive datasets achieve zero training error which does not bode well for their performance...

... yet they also achieve remarkably low errors on test sets!

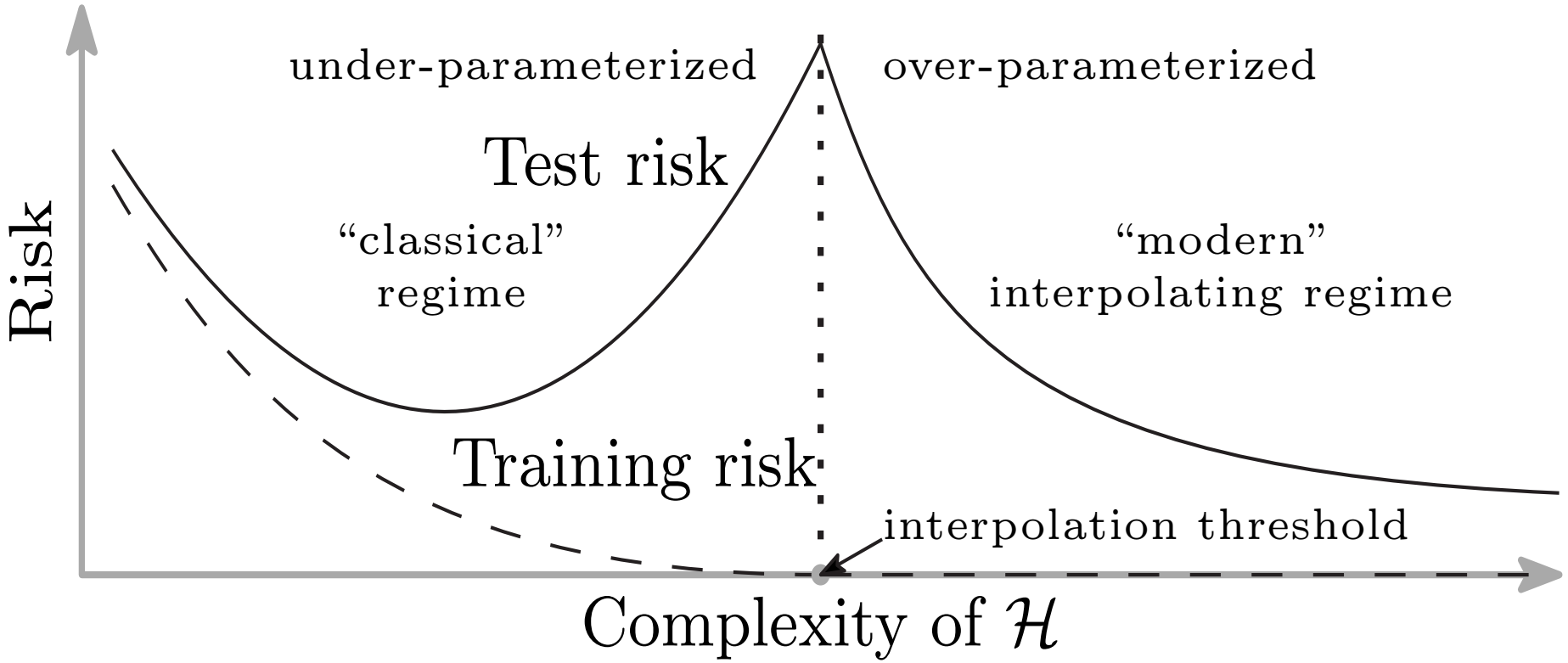
PAC-Bayes is a solid candidate to better understand how deep nets generalize.

The celebrated bias-variance tradeoff



Belkin et al. (2018)

Towards a better understanding of deep nets



Belkin et al. (2018)

Performance of deep nets

- Deep learning has thrown down a challenge to Statistical Learning Theory: outstanding performance with overly complex hypothesis classes (most bounds turn vacuous)
- For SVMs we can think of the margin as capturing an accuracy with which we need to estimate the weights
- If we have a deep network solution with a wide basin of good performance we can take a similar approach using PAC-Bayes with a broad posterior around the solution

Performance of deep nets

- *Dziugaite and Roy (2017)*, *Neyshabur et al. (2017)* have derived some of the tightest deep learning bounds in this way
  - by training to expand the basin of attraction
  - hence not measuring good generalisation of normal training
  - *Dziugaite and Roy (2017)* have also tried to apply the *Lever et al. (2013)* bound but observed cannot measure generalisation correctly for deep networks as has no way of distinguishing between successful fitting of true and random labels
- There have also been suggestions that stability of SGD is important in obtaining good generalization *(see Dziugaite and Roy (2018b))*
- We presented stability approach combining with PAC-Bayes: this results in a new learning principle linked to recent analysis of information stored in weights

Information contained in training set

- *Achille and Soatto (2018)* studied the amount of information stored in the weights of deep networks
- Overfitting is related to information being stored in the weights that encodes the particular training set, as opposed to the data generating distribution
- This corresponds to reducing the concentration of the distribution of weight vectors output by the algorithm
- They argue that the Information Bottleneck criterion introduced by *Tishby et al. (1999)* can control this information: hence could potentially lead to a tighter PAC-Bayes bound
- Potential for algorithms that optimize the bound

Conclusion

- PAC-Bayes arises from two fields:
  - Statistical learning theory
  - Bayesian learning
- As such, it generalizes both in interesting and promising directions.
- We believe PAC-Bayes can be an inspiration towards
  - new theoretical analyses
  - but also drive novel algorithms design, especially in settings where theory has proven difficult.

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Slides available on
`https://bguedj.github.io/icml2019/index.html`

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